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The Teachers College Journal seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The Journal does not engage in re-publication practice, in belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcome, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

Articles are presented on the authority of their writers, and do not necessarily commit the Journal to points of views so expressed. At all times the Journal reserves the right to refuse publication if in the opinion of the Editorial Board an author has violated standards of professional ethics or journalistic presentation.

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OCTOBER COVER

Looking westward across the campus quadrangle at Indiana State Teachers College. The buildings in the background are the Administration Building and Health Center, The Language-Mathematics Building, and Parsons Hall, men's dormitory.

—Courtesy of Office of Information Services

Editorial . . .

The Teacher Shortage

A recent report of national scope stated that the shortage of teachers for the 1959-1960 school year exceeds 100,000. With such a situation prevailing, one can easily surmise that many children are attending classrooms in which there are far too many pupils for each to gain optimum benefits. The added burden on the teachers, who are forced to teach larger classes because of the teacher shortage, lessens their effectiveness and limits their opportunities to give more time to individuals. The pupil is severely short-changed in his educational endeavor under such conditions.

Many factors contribute to the teacher shortage, and these have been enumerated countless times. Low pay, low prestige, long hours, long and expensive training, poor working conditions, limited opportunities, and many others, have all been emphasized as operating to keep young people out of teaching. However, it should be realized that there are undesirable features surrounding all professions, and that the disadvantages of teaching can generally be counterbalanced by the pleasurable aspects, the challenging responsibilities, and the rewarding opportunities that abound in the profession.

The major problem, then, is initiating a concerted effort on a nationwide basis by all facets of society to encourage a greater number of individuals to seriously consider the profession of teaching as their life's work. However, the problem is not restricted to increasing the quantity of teachers. The parallel problem of quality is equally important. A greater number of inadequately

prepared and incapable teachers would do nothing but harm to our educational system. We need a constant levelling up of the qualities and teaching characteristics of those entering the profession.

Public school teachers, themselves, are in the most advantageous position to do something about the shortage of teachers. They are in daily contact with our high school population and have countless opportunities to observe the characteristics, traits, and abilities of these young people. They are also most likely to serve as counselors to this group; in this capacity, teachers have unlimited possibilities of identifying and guiding young people, who have the potential, into the profession of teaching. If each high school could "recruit" at least one prospective teacher each year, the shortage would indeed be lessened.

The personnel of teachers colleges and schools of education could assist materially in this effort. They should willingly offer their services to the high schools as consultants and resource persons in this endeavor; they should constantly provide materials, films, and other aids that would present the profession of teaching in its true prospective. Undoubtedly, if professional educators and public school personnel work together, something can be done about the shortage of classroom teachers.

CHARLES HARDAWAY
Editor

Teachers With Ideas Ought To Write!

Erwin F. Karner, *Lee Junior College
Jackson, Kentucky*

Teachers with ideas ought to write!

Ideas are of little value if they are not made available to others. The teacher who has developed an interesting classroom or extracurricular program or technique ought to be ready and willing to share it. By sharing it, we mean sharing it with *thousands* of other teachers and school administrators.

How this can be done is simply by writing, by writing for publication. This statement might strike a teacher in Chicago, Seattle, or Denver, as a little far-fetched at first thought. However, let him be assured that this opportunity is much closer to reality than this.

There are over 200 education magazines and journals which print material which is submitted by teachers. Although some of these are commercialized and want articles which have been done only by "experts" and "specialists", many more of them are ready and willing to print good articles which have been done by working teachers in Chicago, Seattle or Denver.

And look at it this way too. If you have an idea which is new and unique, you, the teacher, after all, are an expert yourself.

You scoff! Wait awhile. Are you interested in having your ideas with your name attached seen and read by thousands of other people? If this thought appeals to you, then read further.

First, you want proof that others like yourself are publishing their ideas. Good! Find what education magazines your school has — look them over. Perhaps your school doesn't have much. But visit a first

class public or university library. You will find enough magazines there to keep you skimming for hours.

Pick up *Clearing House*, *School Activities*, *Scholastic Editor*, or the *Peabody Journal of Education* etc. . . Somewhere with the names of the articles, the writers will be identified, and a good many times you will find authors who are teachers just like yourself.

Are you convinced? Okay then, what will you have to learn?

To write!

Writing is not as easy as some people think, nor as difficult as other people think. You have to start with a fairly decent command of the English language. If you have this, then the next step is to learn the special technique required for a very special kind of article known in journalism circles as the feature article.

Most of the articles which are published in the magazines except the argumentative kind are of this type. Reader enthusiasm shows that this is a popular type.

The feature article has an introduction (or lead), a body, and a conclusion. Well, what written or spoken form doesn't you ask! Good, then you know this much already.

The introduction introduces the subject and has as its main purpose to arouse reader interest. If the introduction has no appeal to him, the reader will go no further.

The body explains the idea or program, either topically or chronologically, whichever method most logically fits the subject. This part is the real substance of the article.

Winding up the article is the job

of the conclusion. The conclusion should tie what has been said in the introduction and the body of the article together, and leave the reader with the feeling that he has read what he set out to read.

Simple as this sounds, it takes practice. The best way to start is to make an outline of what you have to say just as if you were explaining it to someone. After you are satisfied with the outline, then attempt to develop it into an article.

But always remember this! The best explanation is spoiled if the writing style is poor. Developing a good writing style takes time, but this should not stop you from attempting to publish. By redoing a poorly written draft of an article and redoing it again (and again etc. . . if necessary) a smoothly written piece can emerge—one that is publishable.

Here are some suggestions about style:

Sentences should be short and not overly complex. They ought not to be written at the child's level; yet they should be written so that the reader does not find reading painful.

Paragraphs should be short. A paragraph of three to five sentences is long enough.

Grammar ought to be correct.

The article should be written in the third person.

Illustrations and anecdotes ought to be included wherever they will add interest to the article.

The article should be typewritten and double-spaced. (Make a carbon copy of it which you can keep in your own files.)

A word may be said, too, about the sentence and paragraph which comprise the introduction. As was mentioned before, this part of the article must capture the reader's attention and hold him long enough to enable him to become interested in what the writer has to say.

Successful techniques have been worked out to accomplish this. Important declarative sentences, questions, startling statements, or quotations attract attention and arouse reader interest. Note how writers begin feature articles in the newspapers or magazines.

Here are several examples of these different leads which are taken from magazine articles similar to the ones which teachers can write:

1) IMPORTANT DECLARATIVE SENTENCES

"Many high schools, especially those which are located in small towns, can greatly improve their whole journalism program by having their own news column in the local town daily or weekly newspaper. Such a project will not only give students valuable journalism experience, but it will also provide a source of news for students' parents and friends and others interested in the high school."

2) QUESTIONS

"Is your school paper received by the students with a sense of urgency? Are the students so anxious to get the paper that they will make a special trip to wherever it is being distributed?"

If your answers to these questions are anything but an unqualified "yes", then you have troubles—troubles which unfortunately visit college and high school newspapers."

3) STARTLING STATEMENTS

"*High Schools, Don't Hide That Debate Team!* This is good advice. For the student debate team is one of the best show pieces that the high

school has. It can be used not only as a show piece around the school, but also in the same way at other schools for special purposes."

4) QUOTATIONS

"How can I put my college publications experience to work?"

"This puzzling question may be a serious matter for the high school teacher who has an interest in publications work but who has not been able to find an opportunity to use it."

Of course, the lead paragraph must have some relation to the rest of the article. The reader will not be duped! The lead paragraph must show the reader where he is going.

Remember too that the body of the article should be written in a lively manner to keep the reader going until the end. If the article becomes dull after a fast start, the writer will lose his audience.

The conclusion should tie the article together by showing the reader where he has been and what he has covered. Using a phrase or idea which was used in the lead paragraph will often do this.

Taking an example which was used earlier in the startling statement illustration, notice how the last paragraph restates (in slightly different words, it is true) the idea which is contained in the lead:

LEAD

"*High School, Don't Hide That Debate Team!* This is good advice. For the student debate team is one of the best show pieces that the high school has..."

LAST PARAGRAPH

"So, show off that debate team! Speech work and debating should develop extrovert characteristics. But they can't do it if the debate team is kept in the background..."

Once the article has been written, where should it be sent? Placing the

article will be the final problem which the teacher-writer will encounter. This may be difficult and take time, or it may be done rather easily.

The time to think about this problem is before the writing is even attempted. Once the idea for the piece has been thought of, the teacher should acquaint himself with the magazines or periodicals which publish articles such as his. Then he ought to examine rather closely one or two which will most likely accept it.

There are various ways of finding these magazines. A glance at the education section of "Writer's Market" is a good place to begin, although the list of periodicals here is not nearly complete and some of the information about the publications is not up-to-date. Looking through the "Educational Index" which is the reader's guide of the education field is another, although even here some magazines are not listed.

But by far the best way of becoming acquainted with education magazines is by looking through the periodical room of a large library.

With the magazine to which the article is to be sent in mind, the writer can *slant* it for that magazine. By *slant*, we mean write it the way that the magazine wants its material written. Each publication has its particular needs and characteristics and therefore wants articles written in a particular way.

Just one or two examples of what we mean by slanting. If a magazine wants a lively article with many illustrations or examples, there is no use sending it one which is overly academic and detailed. On the other hand, there is no use sending a highly technical article suitable to a very specialized audience to a magazine which appeals to a more general audience.

If he understands slanting, the

writer will increase his chances of getting his articles published.

When sending the article off, the teacher should include a letter (not too long) introducing himself, telling a little about himself, and telling how the article originated. The article should have a title and that title along with the teacher's name ought to be placed in the upper left-hand corner of the first page. With the article, enclose a self-addressed stamped envelope, so that the editors may return it if they do not want to accept it.

What should be done if the piece is returned by one magazine?

By all means, send it to another!

A rejection doesn't necessarily mean that the article is not publishable. It may mean that the editors don't think that it is suitable for their audience. Or, it may mean that they have so much material in advance that they do not want to commit themselves on another article. Sometimes, too, they just make a mistake.

A few published articles will give the new author confidence and experience in submitting articles. The totally unexpected will often happen. One article will be taken up immediately, while others will make the

rounds from one magazine to another for a long, long time until they are accepted. It is not unusual to write an article for one magazine, have it rejected by that magazine, have it rejected by others, and finally have it accepted by a magazine which the writer hadn't even heard of at the time he wrote the piece.

"What about copyright?"

To discuss this problem would take more space than we can spare here. Evidently there is a variation among educational magazines in regard to whether or not they copyright their material. The new author should consult a good writing reference book on the subject in order to become acquainted with the general practices of copyrighting. Then, if he is still concerned about copyrighting his material, he should determine the practices of the publication to which he wants to submit his article before submitting.

The final matter of interest to the teacher-writer is what reward is there for his effort? Financially, very little. Most education magazines and journals do not pay for the material which they use. Publishing costs make this prohibitive. (However, they will send the writer free copies of the issue in which his piece ap-

pears, usually enough to meet his needs.)

As far as personal satisfaction and professional advancement are concerned, the reward is greater.

Educational magazines circulate to schools, libraries, and institutions of higher learning. They are read by teachers, administrators, professors, students, and other people who are interested in education. The teacher who publishes regularly has the satisfaction of knowing that he has an influence on a wide audience and that a number of people will not only read his articles, but will also put the ideas which he has set forth into use.

Furthermore, published articles do influence promotions and the obtaining of better positions. It is a fact, and perhaps a somewhat unfortunate fact, that a person can be one of the best classroom teachers in his community or state and very few people will know of it. But if he publishes, many people have the opportunity to judge and evaluate his ideas and interests. Teaching is a profession in which it is a good idea to publish.

So, teachers with ideas, you ought to write! It is a lot of fun and can be profitable to you.

A Word of Tribute

Some months ago, our Faculty Council agreed that it would be well, each year, to prepare a brief memorial statement in honor of any members of the administration or faculty, active or retired, who might have been called from us by death.

In the past school year, 1958-1959, our college sustained but one such loss. As the present school year rushes along, with many new among administration, faculty, and student body, it is proper that we pay a tribute to Richard F. McDaid, former member of the Mathematics Department.

Mr. McDaid came to Indiana State in 1935. Through almost twenty-four years of service here he rose

from the rank of instructor to that of associate professor. His educational background was excellent. His training in mathematics, in civil engineering, in physics, and in education qualified him for the respect which his students and his colleagues felt toward him.

Quiet and unassuming, Richard McDaid seemed content to be known as an effective and thorough teacher. Because he was that and more, Indiana State Teachers College, faculty and administration alike, pauses to reflect and to honor him.

Richard F. McDaid, born in New York in 1894, died, in Terre Haute, January 22, 1959. He was survived by his wife, Madge, and a son and daughter.

R. H. GEMMECKE
Faculty Affairs Committee

The Case For Library Science Courses In Teacher Education Institutions

Hattie M. Knight, Department of Library Science
Brigham Young University*

If every child needs a library and is to have one worthy the name, then every school needs a librarian.

One might wonder just what is the case, if there is one, for teaching library science courses in colleges and universities where graduate library schools do not exist. Recent reports and surveys have shown that more than 500 such institutions do offer courses in library science. Some have independent departments; others work under the College of Education. The number of courses varies greatly as does the practice of giving undergraduate or graduate credit.

A glance at the long list of "positions open" in library periodicals and posted on bulletin boards at library conventions and at library schools helps to answer the question. The old rule of supply and demand is in operation—the supply of trained school librarians is small and the demand is great.

Library Science courses are needed in teacher education institutions for five purposes:

1. To prepare school librarians.
2. To teach college students how to use books and libraries effectively
3. To provide in-service training for full and part-time university library employees.
4. To give stimulus and background training for students who will attend a graduate library school.

*Adapted from a talk given at Mountain Plains Library Convention, Denver, Colorado, August 29, 1958.

5. To train librarians for the small public libraries of the various states and sub-professionals for the larger public libraries.

A. TRAINING OF SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

In recent years the demand for school librarians has greatly increased and the demand for more credit hours has increased with it. This has been largely due to the urging of the accrediting associations. But more important than this has been the change in methods of teaching. Children no longer go through just one reader a year as was done in days gone by. Neither do they use only one text in high school social studies or literature. The need for a good school library and a capable librarian is real. The administrators are beginning to feel it.

The most recent *Statistical Abstract of the United States* (1959) lists 2,640 high schools within the mountain plains area alone. There are many more elementary schools. If all of these were to have libraries and librarians it would be impossible for years to come for the accredited library schools to provide for them.

That the library schools are aware of the great need for school librarians is evidenced by the fact that in recent years curriculums have been greatly enlarged to include as many as eight courses especially designed for them. Others have as many as seven such courses. An examination of the catalogs of ten years ago from these same schools would show only one or two such specialized courses.

Dilla McBean, Director of the Division of Libraries, Board of Education, Chicago, in an article in *Library Journal* (December 15, 1954, 2472) makes a very sensible summation when she says:

Our librarians all have some library training, though many have obtained it in teacher training institutions rather than in accredited library schools. A majority of these teachers have fifteen or more hours of library science, meeting the state requirements and those of the North Central Association, both of which also require a minimum of fifteen hours in education, as the librarian is a special teacher on the faculty. She must have courses in child psychology, curriculum development, and a background of school and class management. She should be well versed in serving the slow reader, the retarded reader, a task as challenging as introducing the accelerated pupil to the best in literature for children and youth.

Undoubtedly the training of school librarians is the number one reason for the large number of courses offered by departments of Library Science in schools other than the accredited library schools.

Perhaps the major reason why many of these courses are offered on the graduate level is that school librarians find it necessary to earn additional credit periodically in order to renew certificates. They are graduated and naturally demand graduate credit for work that is comparable to classes offered in the College of Education (or in other colleges) and

to those offered in the professional library schools.

B. TRAINING IN USE OF THE LIBRARY FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

That college students lack knowledge of how to use a library intelligently is evidenced daily as they depend entirely on the text or reserve books. Some come reluctantly to the reference desk for sympathy or to complain after spending fruitless hours on something that could have been done in minutes if the card catalog or the Reader's Guide had been mastered.

The "Library Orientation Test for College Freshmen" put out by Columbia University Teacher's College has been tried with several groups at our university. The results show generally very inadequate preparation to use the library. This points up the fact that better library facilities and more and better-trained librarians are needed in our high schools.

Most colleges and universities do have a course in the use of books and libraries. Such a course is seldom required, however. Most of us would not question the need of such a requirement or its equivalent, but we would wonder where the needed teacher could be found not to mention classroom space and the resultant wear and tear on reference tools.

Upper division and graduate students need training in using libraries for research in their special fields. Sometimes such courses are given by the various departments. Sometimes special tours and as many as three lectures concerning bibliography sources in a specific subject, as well as some general sources, are given by library staff members. Students in one such class were asked to finish the statement "The best thing I have received from the class is _____" (No signature required.)

Typical responses follow:

1. "Respect for books and a realization of their importance."
2. "I can now find material that I didn't know existed. I found out there were other indexes than the Reader's Guide."
3. "It has taught me the real value of a library as well as taken away the fear I had of going into one."

There can be no question about the need for Library Science courses for the student who must learn how to use the library sooner or later if he is to succeed in his college career and after.

C. IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR LIBRARY EMPLOYEES

Perhaps fewer courses are given with this express purpose in mind than either of the others mentioned. But in some libraries student assistants are at least urged to take a class in the use of books and libraries so that they will be better acquainted with the library in every way and thus be more valuable as assistants. From this beginning many students become interested in librarianship as a career and often take other classes as a background before going to professional library school. Or in other instances individuals have decided against going away to school and have become full-time clerical or sub-professional workers in the library. Here it is possible to further improve oneself by taking additional classes while continuing on the job.

D. TO PREPARE STUDENTS FOR GRADUATE WORK IN LIBRARY SCIENCE

This undoubtedly comes more often as an incidental rather than a planned result of students taking Library Science courses. The original aim may have been to become a more efficient part-time assistant or to learn to do research in a subject field.

Many of the now professional librarians became interested during

their undergraduate days in one of the ways mentioned above. A few students enter universities directly from high school with librarianship as a career in mind. They try to get a broad general education as well as a better background in the field of library science. To do this they take courses which will give them a start in the field and which they hope will be accepted in the accredited library school.

E. TRAINING OF PUBLIC LIBRARIANS

As far back as 1952, a letter from a library board member to the president of our university pointed out the situation in the entire state. He says in part:

"As one visits the libraries up and down the state, one certainly does become impressed with the great inadequacy of training in librarianship. Here is one significant area that would have a distinct cultural and educational advantage to the people of the state and of the entire region that seems to me to be tremendously important."¹

With the present shortage of professional librarians it would be folly to suddenly make it mandatory that all librarians have professional degrees. Neither would such action be economically sound, either for the future library worker or for the city which is to employ her. Conditions would be very much improved if all library workers had from nine to twenty-one hours of Library Science training.

The fault here is both with library trustees and with colleges and universities within the states. The former have made little or no effort to find people with training or to require that they get training. The latter have failed to urge public librarians to take classes or to adjust their curri-

¹Letter in author's file.

culums to fit the needs of these people.

Even if they were available it would be unwise to have only professional people in our libraries. Clerical and sub-professional workers are needed also and in even greater numbers. Surely there is a great need for Library Science classes

in our colleges and universities for these people who cannot afford to go out of their home states for special training.

There is a need, and this need will undoubtedly continue for many years. The newly prepared standards (approved by the Council of the A.L.A. Midwinter, 1959) should be our

guide in formulating objectives and content of such programs. It is evident that a better curriculum could be provided in both types of institutions and that more cooperation between the two could prove vastly beneficial to both.

"World Disarmament or World Suicide"

Rt. Hon. Phillip Noel-Baker

A condensation of the annual Pi Gamma Mu lecture at ISTC, April 29, 1959. Phillip Noel-Baker is a Labour Party member of the British parliament, a former cabinet minister and diplomat. He was speaking in the United States under the auspices of the American Friends Service Committee (Quakers).

It is my task this morning to talk about the Arms Race now going on. About its scale, its nature, its meaning, in politics and morals, its potential danger to the human race. And I want to argue that while I think no one has been very much to blame for the situation in which we find ourselves, nevertheless, our present situation in all our countries is becoming more and more untenable; militarily, politically, and morally. I think we have as our first and most urgent political task to break the dogmatic sleep about the Arms Race in which most of us are at present blissfully wrapped. When I talk about the nature of the arms race, of what the modern weapons would do if they were ever used, people sometimes say with natural impatience, 'Oh, we know all that. We've read it in the papers.' And when they see that a General has repeated the old formula, 'one bomb, one city', it passes from their minds more swiftly, it leaves on their memo-

ry less mark than a good play in the last baseball game.

I don't think of war in terms of newspaper headlines. I think of it in terms of what happened to me. Our first world war began on August 4, 1914. That night I sat in Norman Angel's flat and listened to our great Parliamentary clock, Big Ben, strike the twelve strokes which meant that hostilities with Germany had begun. And we heard along the embankment of the Thames, our force artillery thundering to Victoria Station to entrain for France. Two months later in October, I crossed the channel to Dunkirk in an Admiralty transport carrying twelve inch shells. And when we were half way across we came up with a cruiser, the first aircraft carrier, the *Hermes*, which had just been sunk by a German torpedo. For hours we cruised about in lifeboats, picking up wounded, dead and dying sailors who had escaped from the vessel before she went down. That night we got to Dunkirk. We went straight to the railway sheds where the wounded from the Battle of the Oise Canal had been collected. Belgians, Frenchmen, Germans, Englishmen and the stench as we entered our buildings absolutely sickened us all. These men were dying of septicemia, their wounds had

been untended for more than two weeks time. Two nights later I was in Ypres, the famous Belgian City with its lovely guild hall which I had just had time to see before we found quarters for the night. At 2:20 a.m. we had the first salvos of German shells which struck the city, which soon were to destroy it utterly, to leave no remnant of that guild hall, which had been a glory for centuries of that Belgian town. And in the morning when we came out, we saw the women, with their babies in their arms, their pathetic little bundles of clothes on their backs, leaving their broken homes, knowing that their lives were shattered, making off for safety, as they hoped, in France.

In 1940, a bomb fell from the air in my street in London, six hundred yards from the palace of Queen Elizabeth the 2nd. The house next to mine collapsed. In the lower stories there had been a shoe shop, kept by a lady and a gentleman, both over seventy-five years old. The man was buried in the rubble of the basement. The old lady was taken by Civil Defense workers to a rest center. She came back next day to find her brother who of course was gone. And for five days she wandered up and down our street in mental breakdown until someone took her to a hospital

where her brother, gravely mutilated was laid. And when I think of war, when I hear the modern phrase, 'one bomb, one city,' I think one torpedo, one three inch shell, one rifle bullet, means one human tragedy that never ends.

Now we're in our third Arms Race; you're in your first. Our first Arms Race culminated in the War of 1914, which was, as our statesmen said, the major cause of that first world war. I don't think many people realize that at the peak of that competition in 1914 the nations of the world had in their standing armed forces about five million men. Today in 1959 the number is sixteen and one-half million! In 1914 we were spending what we thought a fantastic sum, all the nations together, of five hundred million pounds a year. Today we are spending, not five hundred million, but forty thousand million. Allowed for the change in the value of money, the scale of armament preparation is incomparably better than it was then. And in the expenditure, the most significant portion is the money that is spent on what we term by the euphemistic phrase of military research, the money which we give to our scientists of genius, to improve the weapons we possess and to make new weapons cheaper, more efficient, more deadly still. In 1938, we were spending on military research, five million pounds; last year we spent two hundred and ten million pounds. In 1940, the U. S. was spending twenty-five million dollars. Last year President Eisenhower told your nation you were spending on military research, on development, on tests, five thousand, three hundred million dollars. And if you give scientists unlimited money, unlimited resources, all the plant they want, they produce results.

Now we've got the nuclear weapons. Have we forgotten the Hiroshima Bomb? No of course not. But yes, of course. Who here really remembers as a little part of his daily consciousness that the bomb drop-

ped at 8:15 on a summer morning, August 6, 1945, killed in a moment of time or after months of torturing pain, one hundred thousand human beings; that it blinded, crippled, riddled with radio-active diseases, burnt irreparably one hundred thousand more, that it destroyed a great city, that there are still scores of people in Hiroshima dying every year from the effects of a bomb that fell fourteen years ago. That's the yard stick by which you have to measure the nature of the weapons which we now possess. And remembering that yard stick, you must remember too, that five years later we have atomic fission bombs—plutonium, uranium 235, the same in mechanism and in nature as the first Hiroshima bomb which is twenty-five times as powerful, twenty-five Hiroshimas in one. And five years later, we had the H-bomb, the equivalent of fifteen million tons of TNT, seven hundred and fifty Hiroshimas in one.

And some people think the nuclear weapons are not the most alarming. We are developing chemical and bacteriological weapons. We had chemical weapons in the first world war. I was at Ypres in April 1915 when the first gas attack was made. I remember the bitter indignation which that first gas attack provoked throughout the world. Before 1918 all the competent nations were using poison gas. It was four times as efficient as high explosives in producing casualties. In the second world war, Hitler produced a new gas, a nerve gas, called Taboon, which he wanted to use, which he gave orders to his generals to use, which they refused to use because Germany had already lost the war. And this Taboon gas was more terrible than anything we had ever known before.

We've got Taboon today in very great quantities. Your generals say it is ten times more efficient than Hitler's version. One of our scientists says it may be one hundred times as efficient. We have bacteriological weapons. A great Canadian expert,

Major-General Chisholm, said that in 1944 when Hitler was preparing to use his flying bombs, the V-1, all our general staffs thought he was going to use a new biological weapon, Botchilitis Toxian. And Chisholm was sent from Canada with a vast number of injections of a prophylactic to inoculate British, American and Canadian soldiers, to feed the information that he had done so into Hitler's spy system, so that Hitler would know that we had this weapon and would use it in return if in fact he would put it in his flying bombs. Chisholm says that when the bombs went off with a loud explosion, showing that it was only an ordinary high explosive, all our general staffs heaved a sigh of immediate relief, because if Hitler had used Botchilitis Toxian, he might have wiped out a great part of our British population from the Channel to the Tweed and there would have been nothing, I repeat nothing, that we could have done about it.

Ladies and gentlemen, I venture to think that when we have reached a point where we have perhaps tens of thousands of hydrogen bombs, where we have scores of thousands of ordinary atomic bombs, where we have vast stocks of these poison gases, and of these biological and bacteriological weapons, when our generals say that we have thousands of vehicles to deliver these weapons, (but as we could finish off Russia with hundreds only), when they say we could destroy Soviet Russia many times over, we are reaching a point in the power of destruction when we should sit back and think. And I want to ask two fundamental questions about the Arms Race. *Can you make yourself safe*, can you defend freedom of your own or other nations by building more armaments than your potential enemy? *What end is there to an Arms Race?* What end can there be to this Arms Race that will differ from the end of the Arms Races in 1914 and 1939? And facing these questions, we must remem-

ber what General Omar Bradley has said about the speed of the Arms Race. He said it is going forward with the speed of a sputnik and each new invention which the scientist develop simply becomes one new weapons system.

Now I don't think any of us can foresee for certain the end of the Arms Race, but I do believe that the progress in weapons in the next fifteen years will not be less than the progress since 1945. And if that is so, is it not virtually certain that one nation and then another will develop the power to deliver a total knock-out blow? A knock-out blow against which no retaliation would be possible because all the means of retaliation would in the first attack have been destroyed. Now I could quote from Mr. Hanson Baldwin, the greatest of military commentators, that Russia already might be able to deliver such a knock-out blow. And he says that view is shared by many of the U. S. Air Defense Command. I think it very likely that within five years, at least within ten, both Russia and the U. S. and perhaps Britain might be able to deliver a sudden knock-out blow against a nation with which it thought it might be at war. In other words there would be a supreme temptation to that last international crime, the preventive war.

I think there is a second development that is very probable if not certain. If we retain our present weapons, I think it can't be doubted that China will make nuclear weapons too. She is now making nuclear weapons and expects to have them ready in the early 1960s. If we keep our nuclear weapons, China will have them too, and France will have them, and then Germany and Italy and Japan and India and Pakistan and who knows how many other nations. And I venture the prediction, if the Arms Race, goes on, there will, within ten or fifteen years from now, be a dozen powers with nuclear weapons of their own.

Faced with that position, we must also recognize that the triumphs of the scientist have given the human race a unique opportunity in history, an opportunity which no generation has had before, to choose, instead of total and ultimate disaster, the alternative of total prosperity for all the nations of the world. It is in our power to use the resources we now command to end the grinding poverty in which half the human race at present lives, poverty so terrible that people are hungry from the moment they are born until they die, poverty so terrible that they're most of the illiterate, that they are victims of horrible diseases, which could easily be wiped out, that their infant mortality is five hundred per thousand; one baby in two dying in its mother's arms before it is twelve months old.

Now, with that alternative, I believe there is in the world today a mounting demand for a progressive program of armament production. The secretary-general of the United Nations, Mr. Hammarskjöld, came back the other day from a tour of Asia. He said that in every country, the first question that was put to him was about disarmament. When were the major powers going to stop talking and get a practical result? I was in Russia before Christmas where I saw Khrushchev and Mikoyan. I brought back the impression from Russia and from Poland and from Sweden and from Norway that on both sides of the Iron Curtain there is a passionate fear of war, that among the people nothing would be so warmly welcomed as a reduction of armament all around. There are many voices who are saying that this problem of the Arms Race must be tackled and tackled soon.

Now I know that it is sometimes said that if we had disarmament on any considerable scale, it would mean a grievous economic flop. But of course it isn't true. After 1945 my country demobilized by the government twelve million men from the

armed forces and from munition making. We had no unemployment. There is an immense unsatisfied demand in your country, in my country, in Europe and in the backward countries for civil goods which these arm firms could so easily make.

And let's face another fact about the arms race. Every weapon developed, every expenditure made is for defense, to make our nation safe, to win a war, to keep it from our shores. But our Minister of Defense never speaks in the House of Commons, without saying that there is no defense against the modern weapons of war, that the attack is in the ascendant, is in fact absolutely supreme. He says he can defend our bomber bases, but not the British people. He says, every time he speaks in the House of Commons, there will be no safety in the world until there is world disarmament.

Now what I'm urging is not unilateral disarmament, it's not nuclear disarmament only, it's not uninspected or uncontrolled disarmament. I want a system of disarmament in which all nations take part, in which all armaments are reduced, in which the weapons of mass destruction are abolished, in which there is inspection and control which will give every reasonable guarantee that a violation of the treaty will be discovered. I should now like to see the powers of the West put forward again the plans which they were urging on the Russians in 1955, plans for a comprehensive disarmament treaty, a reduction of man-power down to one million for China, Russia, and the United States and smaller numbers for the rest; a corresponding reduction of conventional weapons, warships, aircraft, tanks, and guns; the total abolition of the weapons of mass destruction, the limitation of budgets, and the system of inspection and control.

Even if it be as difficult as space travel, to reach agreement with the Russians, nevertheless, it is not beyond the power of intellect to do it.

Such a treaty is required. Is it utopian; is world order a dream? Well, I venture to say that there is no one who cuts so ludicrous, so foolish, so pathetic a figure in our modern world as the self-styled realists who think that the United Nations is not simply a practical piece of government machinery, as it is, and who believes that by national armaments you can make a nation safe. There is no defense against modern weapons. The visionary, the romanticist, is the man who thinks that national armaments are a way to national safety. I believe true safety lies in the controlled, all-round multilateral system which I've described.

Ladies and gentlemen, I've only

had a few moments to put a great problem before you. Forgive me if I've been dogmatic. My experience has burnt into my mind the indispensable condition of the salvation of the human race. Every scientist tells us now that if another war begins, mankind will be wiped out, if half our existing stocks of weapons are used. Four weeks ago I stood in the Memorial Chapel of my college in Cambridge, England, Kings College Chapel. And I saw the sunlight glinting through the stained glass windows on the names of my friends with whom I was at college there many years ago: Rupert Brook would have been the greatest poet of our time if he had lived; Nigel Bennettt,

who would have been the most learned and the most brilliant of our historians; Clarence Hickman, with whom I'd climbed the mountains of Europe and Britain and who stroked our boat; Ashington, who was the greatest track star we had ever had. As I read their names, I remembered that we then believed that **parliamentary institutions would spread** the world and all men would soon be free, that science would wipe out the poverty of the backward countries, that the growth of international law would end all wars. It was for these things that my friends went out to die. And I still find it hard to think that they died in vain.

A Study of Parental Control of Television

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INTRODUCTION

To those concerned with the educational aspects of television, the question of control and the supervision and selection of programs the children are permitted to view is not new to them. In the past twenty years, radio programs directed toward an audience of children have generated the same kind of criticism that is now leveled at television.

Relatively little has yet been done to direct the potentialities of this great medium for educational purposes. Television, as a mass communication medium, offers new program opportunities to educators. Sober analysis and research are needed if anticipations with regard to this potentially powerful medium are to be realized and understood. Yet the complete scope of the educational benefits of the television program lies not in programs planned and pro-

duced by educators, but in the complete bill-of-fare offered to the viewer.

Can one distinguish objectively between the deliberate use of television as a medium for mass education and its utilization primarily for entertainment? In other words, in the broad sense, is all television educational?

It may well be true that a child today will actually have seen more of the world than his grandfather saw in a lifetime, but in this study, the purpose is to consider the complete bill-of-fare offered to the children to view. Of greater importance, it would seem, are the adult programs which children may watch.

All three of the Cleveland television stations subscribe to the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters. The mem-

ber stations pledge themselves to uphold the NARTB Code. The Code states in part, "... television's relationship to the viewers is that between guest and host." It further states, "Television and all who participate in it are jointly accountable to the American public for respect for the special needs of children, for the acceptability of the program materials chosen, for the decency and decorum in production, and for propriety in advertising."

Are broadcasters assuming their responsibilities toward children? Is it wise to assume that sound educational principles and a good conscience on the part of officials engaged in programming television shows are sufficient to ensure acceptable viewing programs for children?

Is it necessary to supervise the children's viewing at home? Are parents satisfied with the programs

which are now available for their children to view? Are children entitled to a little relaxation after a long day at school or should parents insist that their children view only the so-called educational programs? Are the broadcasters or the parents responsible for the raising of the nation's children?

Some of these and many other questions may still be unanswered, but they are beyond the scope of this study.

This research project was conducted by utilizing the questionnaire and interview techniques in a modified sense. Actually, the method could be regarded as an "oral questionnaire." One limitation was the use of eighty Fenn College students to collect the data. The students were not trained in the skills of interviewing nor required to carefully study the pertinent literature before starting their interviews. The questions however, were carefully prepared to avoid an array of miscellaneous or meaningless material after the students had gathered the facts and opinions.

The oral questionnaire method provided both a challenge and an opportunity for the use of tact and gave the students many concepts which were useful for classroom discussion periods. This method also gave the students a greater sense of participation and the discussion periods aided in insuring that the students would assume the responsibility of performing their assignments both diligently and accurately.

In order to insure uniformity, an instructions sheet listing specific directions was used by each interviewer along with five printed questionnaires. Five cards listing added information were also issued each interviewer to aid in securing information that will be utilized more fully in a later study.

The eighty students returned four hundred usable questionnaires from four hundred families located in Greater Cleveland. A random sam-

pling was obtained with no endeavor to be guided in the choice of family by any consideration other than that the family must have a television receiver and must have children aged six to twelve inclusive. Limitations as to time and personnel dictated the size of the random sample. The respondents represented generally all suburbs and sections of Cleveland and in ages, ranged from 25 to 55 with a mode of 33. The median income of the parents fell between \$5,000 and \$7,000, and the majority were high school graduates.

If this study provokes others into delving further into a study of parental control of television and if parents can benefit by the opinions of many other parents, then this research project will be truly successful.

Results Of The Interviews

The eighty Fenn College students participating in this study returned four hundred usable forms. The students signed each form as evidence that the information was correct.

In regard to set ownership, the four hundred families had owned their television receivers for a grand total of 2,526 years. The range was from two to ten years, with an average of six years for each family.

A total of 592 children, aged six to twelve inclusive, were represented by the four hundred families. Of the total number of respondents, 328 (82%) were mothers (including two grandmothers) and 72 (18%) were fathers. No specific time of day was designated for the interviewers, but according to student's reports, approximately 70% of the interviews were completed during the daylight hours.

In any single week, the 592 children spent 14, 818 hours viewing television. The range was 3 hours to 45 hours per week, with an average of 25 hours per week. The median was 21 hours.

Of the total respondents, 284

(71%) restricted the amount of time their children viewed television and 116 (29%) parents exercised no control whatever over the viewing hours.

Although 29% of the parents interviewed exercised no control whatever over the viewing hours of their children, 185 (46.25%) thought their children viewed television too much while 215 (53.75%) answered "no." It would seem that of the 185 parents who thought their children viewed television too much, 69 did nothing about it. Actually however, some of the parents who restricted the viewing hours, still thought their children viewed television too much.

The 185 parents who thought their children viewed television too much were asked, "What makes you feel they watch too much?" Most parents gave specific answers, other referred to general areas but all of the 185 parents gave at least one reason and some listed as high as four. Table I lists the specific answers and general areas.

TABLE I
WHY SOME PARENTS FEEL
CHILDREN WATCH TV TOO MUCH

Specific Answers

Answers	Frequency
"Doesn't play outside enough"	60
"Won't complete homework"	28
"Won't do household chores"	26
"Doesn't go to bed on time"	14
"Hard on the eyes"	12
"Doesn't read enough"	11

Answers

GENERAL AREAS

Interferes with Social Development	42
Interferes with School	26
Interferes with Good Health	5

The survey disclosed that 172 of the respondents (43%) supervise the selection of programs that their children view, and 228 (57%) do not. The 172 respondents who answered "yes" to this question were asked, "Which particular programs do you

forbid or try to discourage?" Once again, most parents gave particular programs while others referred to general areas or program types. Some parents listed as high as ten programs that they forbade or tried to discourage their children to view. Table II lists the programs and program types forbidden or discouraged. Programs with a frequency of four or less are not listed.

The 172 respondents who answered "yes" to the question were also asked, "Which particular programs do you insist or encourage your children to watch?" Table III reveals specific programs that had a frequency of five or more. Some parents listed as high as a dozen programs.

The respondents were also asked "Are you as a parent satisfied with the programs which are now available for your children to watch?" Of the 400 respondents interviewed, 236 (59%) were satisfied with the programs which are now available for their children to watch, and 164

(41%) of the respondents were not satisfied.

The 164 respondents who were not satisfied with the programs now available for their children to watch were asked, "What changes would you suggest?" They were also asked to be as specific as possible in giving their suggestions. Table IV, lists the suggestions with a frequency of five or more.

TABLE III
PROGRAMS INSISTED UPON OR
ENCOURAGED TO WATCH

Programs	Frequency
Disneyland	64
Mickey Mouse	36
Mr. Wizard	24
Popeye	23
Father Knows Best	20
Wide Wide World	19
Six o'clock Adventure	10
Bishop Sheen	9
Ozzie Nelson	9
Cartoon Classics	8
Lassie	7
Captain Kangaroo	6
Danny Thomas Show	5
Navy Log	5
W. R. U. Telecasts	5
Zoo Parade	5

(Programs with a frequency of 4 or less are not listed.)

TABLE IV
SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE
PROGRAMS FOR CHILDREN

Programs	Frequency
"More Educational Programs"	60
"More like Disneyland"	29
"Less Westerns"	28
"More like Mr. Wizard"	21
"More Children's Programs"	19
"More Cartoon"	15
"Less Cartoons"	12
"Less Murder Type Programs"	10
"Less Crime and Sex before 9:30 p.m."	9
"More Travel Type Shows"	8
"Less 'Rough Stuff' in Children's Shows"	7
"More like Captain Penny"	6
"More Family Type Shows"	6
"More like Father Knows Best"	5
"More Educational Science Programs"	5
"More Sporting Events"	5
"More like Zoo Parade"	5

(Suggestions with a frequency of 4 or less are not listed.)

TABLE II
PROGRAMS AND PROGRAM TYPES
FORBIDDEN OR DISCOURAGED

Particular Programs	Frequency
M Squad	30
Dragnet	29
Alfred Hitchcock	21
Bob Cummings	9
Have Gun, Will Travel	8
Cheyenne	7
Perry Mason	7
The Line Up	6
George Gobel Show	5
Highway Patrol	5
Suspicion	5

Program Types	Frequency
Crime and Sex	24
Murder Mysteries	18
Violent Murders	17
Westerns	10
Some Movies	9
Horror Shows	8
Quiz Programs	5
Adult Type	5

(Programs with a frequency of 4 or less are not listed.)

Summary and Conclusion

It is the author's opinion that the questions asked in the Introduction of this study can best be answered by the parents themselves. The overall results of this study seem to suggest a true picture of the parental control of television in the Greater Cleveland Area. The results do not differ significantly from other studies conducted in similar localities.

The study indicates that 284 (71%) of the parents interviewed restrict the amount of time their children view television. However, only 172 (43%) actually supervise the selection of programs that their children are permitted to view. Although broadcasters are pledged to uphold socially accepted values in programming television shows for children, the primary responsibility for supervising the selection of programs for children to view lies with the parents.

In general, the study reveals that television does more "good" than "harm". Of the 400 parents interviewed, 236 (59%) were "satisfied" with the programs which are now available for their children to watch. The 164 (41%) who were not "satisfied", were not completely "dissatisfied"; a large majority merely listed suggestions for improvement.

It would seem, that the only real danger exists for those parents who exercise no control whatever. As was pointed out in the Introduction, we may argue the "value" of the "harm" in certain programs created for children; but before permitting children to select the program they wish to view, the parents must consider the complete bill-of-fare offered to the child viewer.

It would seem the parents should critically evaluate especially, the "adult type" programs their children are permitted to view. Of the 228 (57%) parents who did not supervise the selection of programs that their children were permitted to view, 52 parents voiced dissatisfaction with the programs which are now avail-

able for their children to view. Many of the 52 parents voiced objections to the "Crime and Sex", "Murder Mysteries", and "Violent Murder" type of shows. One of the 52 even stated, "Crime shows should be stopped immediately." This cross check was the only one made on the questionnaire form; as the purpose of this summary is not to judge nor to place responsibility, but rather to point out that the survey reveals that a large majority of the parents interviewed are aware of the need for discrimination in the selection and the supervision of television programs that their children are permitted to view.

In personally perusing each of the 400 questionnaires, the author could find no significant relationship between the age, income, or education of the respondents, and their responses. Many excellent suggestions were voiced by young and older parents alike, by low and high income brackets, and by parents with just elementary education as opposed to the college graduates.

The only complete cross check on the special information card was

made with the 40 parents with elementary schooling as compared with the 40 college graduates. The first six questions on the questionnaire form revealed no significant difference in the responses of the two classes of educational levels.

The question, "Are you as a parent satisfied with the programs which are now available for your children to watch?", revealed that 29 of the 40 college graduates were not satisfied with the programs which were available for their children to view, while only 19 of the 40 elementary school graduates were dissatisfied. The 29 college graduates voiced stronger objections to the crime and sex shows, but they did not exercise more parental control than their educational inferiors. Higher educational attainments appear to reveal little or no indication as to parental control of television.

The author believes that the supremely challenging fact seems to be the apparent increase of parental awareness to the need for discrimination in the selection and supervision of television programs that children

view. According to a recent Gallup Poll, 70% of American adults believed that television strongly contributed to juvenile crime and delinquency.

It is also true that this medium offers new instructional benefits and brings to children, many new cultural concepts that they could not get any other way. Research seems to bear out the fact that the principal disadvantage is television's crime and sex shows; the principal advantage cited is television's educational value. What then is the answer? Since parents do have the primary responsibility of rearing their children; parental control of television seems to be the answer.

Critically analyze the programs available for your children to view. Encourage your children to view the programs created mainly for them. Suggest alternative activities for programs that would serve only as a "time-filler". In other words, reap the "good" in television and reject what you think is "harmful". Remember, television is a guest in your home.

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Book Reviews

Old Stone Age. By Stvan Celebonovic and Geoffrey Grigson. New York: Philosophical Library.

Old Stone Age is a beautiful book depicting good evidence of what Geoffrey Grigson believes may have been the way of life of early man on our planet. Factual and thought provoking ideas are well exhibited through the text and in Stvan Celebonovic's seventy-two beautiful sensitively taken photographs.

One feels the excitement of a developing world as he becomes aware of the first creative urges of man directed toward fulfillment of his daily needs. To secure food he needed an extension of his hand, his arm, himself. Man selected from the abundance of tough, sharp, flint stone all about him to make these tools and through them we see his conscious planning. Other early materials he may have used may have been swallowed up by Mother Nature as she cemented down the past, preserving some and absorbing others. This early Neanderthal man must also have been interested in grinding and using color as Mr. Celebonovic shows us his mortars and pestles of stone and suggests that one of his most easily available surfaces for decoration and most perishable might have been used, his own skin.

Thousands of years later we find man drawing man, the giant deer, the wood elephant. Why? Was it to assure him of success in the hunt? Something he poured his whole self into the forming of, so that many of his drawings, engravings, and later his sculpture took on an energy, a grace, a form that is unexcelled. Through the Aurignacian, Gravettian, Solutrean, or Magdalenian period, man's depiction of animal or man shows where his interest was and how his people lived as is true of the contemporary artist.

It shows how stone age man accommodated himself to his new environment and what manner of man he was, how he made his tools and of what materials. Included are fine photographic examples of monumental little Gravettian sculptures such as the ones found from Austria and Czechoslovakia to Liberia, foot prints captured in clay a million years ago, hand stencils, outline engravings and shaded drawings of the mammoth, horse, brown bear, wooly rhinoceros, and the reindeer.

Old Stone Age is a fine visual approach with clear cut, believable comments on the beginning of man on our planet.

Dorothea Swander,
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Four Philosophies and Their Practice in Education and Religion. By J. Donald Butler. New York, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957, pp. 618 + xvii, \$6.00.

This book is a revision of an earlier one, which has been used extensively as a textbook in the philosophy of education. The author is Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education at Princeton Theological Seminary.

The book opens with an introductory section designed to help the student see what the field of philosophy is and how one may go about studying it. The major task of the book is to present four ways of studying philosophy—naturalism, idealism, realism, and pragmatism—and to show the significance for education and religion of each of these approaches to philosophy.

Part II includes the following topics:

"A Brief History of Naturalism"

"A Systematic Synopsis of the Philosophy of Naturalism"

"Naturalism in Education"

"Naturalism in Religion"

"Strengths and Weaknesses in the Philosophy of Naturalism"

Parts III, IV, and V follow the same general plan in dealing respectively with Idealism, Realism and Pragmatism.

The book concludes with a section designed to help the student build a philosophy of his own. One part of this final section outlines the author's own personal philosophy of life, education, and religion.

Although the author has chosen the comparative method of studying philosophy of education, he makes it clear that this is not the only way to do it. He states his own position but presents other points of view fairly. The book is much more thorough than the average book in the field of philosophy of education. It is written in an interesting style. The book should be an excellent text in an introductory course in the philosophy of education.

Byron L. Westfall
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Geography in The 20th Century. Edited by Griffith Taylor. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957, pp. 674, \$10.00.

Twenty-two geographers have written this thought-provoking book which covers fields, techniques, and trends of geography. Such internationally recognized geographers as Isiah Bowman, Ellsworth Huntington, L. Dudley Stamp, and J. K. Wright, among others, have each written a chapter in their field of geographic specialization. Griffith Taylor, the editor, has contributed six chapters and a glossary. The voluminous amount of material covered by the 22 authors defies an attempt of a detailed evaluation by this reviewer.

The book is divided into three sections. The first is primarily historical, and the authors deal mainly with geographic trends prior to 1940 and

their methodical bases. The second part of the book is a topical treatment of a few selected aspects of man's physical and cultural environment. The third part systematically treats certain assorted general topics traditionally covered in world regional geography. Finally, an approximate 700-word glossary concludes the book.

Griffith Taylor has clearly left his thoughts indelibly imprinted throughout the book. His selection of "name" geographers of similar philosophy has created a narrow (although in some respects obsolete) coverage. His courage in stating original ideas and concepts is admirable even though this reviewer disagrees with several of them including: his stand on "stop-and-go determinism", several of his definitions in the glossary, and his overstatement of certain principles which have poorly chosen illustrations for substantiation.

The book is an authoritative one. All chapters are written by specialists in those fields, but many of the shortcomings of this book also spring from multiple authorship. The book is shockingly uneven. It lacks cohesion, most statistics are not up-to-date, and several serious omissions are readily apparent.

The book fails to provide a comprehensive, up-to-date evaluation of recent developments of geography in some chapters. For example, Chapter IX written by Visser is based almost entirely on mid-1930 statistics, and 1940 census data are the latest included anywhere within the chapter entitled "Climatic Influences". None of the vast amount of weather and climatic data gathered during World War II is included. Several other chapters are almost as badly antiquated.

Topics conspicuously absent are biotic resources, population, industrial location, and regional geography. Another weakness is the lack of quantification in some chapters. Each

of the above topics and points of emphasis seem to this reviewer to be indispensable in a complete, and comprehensive treatment of modern geography in the United States.

In spite of the obvious gaps, out-of-date data, and lack of quantification, the book has great value. The chapters on soil, weather, settlement, geomorphology, and land use are outstandingly well written. All educators and students of geography could profit by knowing the contents of these excellent chapters written by Putnam, Hare, Bowman, Woolridge, and Stamp.

Despite its several weaknesses, this book includes information which will help promote a world understanding of people and resources. The book should also give educators and students a better perspective of what professional geographers are trying to do as teacher, writers and researchers.

James L. Guernsey
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Bookkeeping Principles. By V. E. Breidenbaugh, Angeline G. Lins, and Fayette H. Elwell. Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1958, pp. 295.

Bookkeeping Principles is a really practical text in content and in size for the student and for the teacher. The discussion in each chapter is reduced to a minimum but it sparkles with a variety of colorful illustrations. The language sets forth short concise statements regarding terms, procedures, and principles that should accelerate understanding and comprehension among high-school students. The book is up-to-date in the use of forms, rulings, business papers, and principles found in business. There is an abundance of problems, an excellent list of questions, and a vocabulary at the end of each chapter.

The approach to the mastery of bookkeeping principles used in this book is a natural one for the high-school student. By using a psycholog-

ical approach to the principles to be learned the student soon becomes aware that the business transactions he has been using embody the fundamental principles of bookkeeping.

Chapter 9 treats the subject of accounting for tax purposes. This chapter containing thirty-five pages, including problems and review questions, is the longest chapter in the book. It does a thorough job in explaining the accounting procedures for payroll taxes. The statement is made that employees may request that amounts be withheld for savings bonds, insurance, hospitalization and other purposes. The discerning student will not confuse these deductions with payroll taxes.

Bookkeeping Principles is a desirable text for a one-year course in high school bookkeeping.

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Modern Russia. By John Long. New York: Philosophical library, 1958, pp. 180 + xi \$6.00.

It would be difficult to find a better summary of the basic facts concerning Russia today than is contained in this little book. The author has been careful to insert only what can be backed up by incontrovertible evidence, and he had avoided sweeping generalizations of dubious authenticity. The book contains nothing really new either as fact or as interpretation. But for the general reader, for whom the work is intended, the convenience of having essential knowledge concerning Soviet Russia gathered within so small a compass will surely be welcomed.

The book is logically arranged into five chapters: the geography of Soviet Russia, the ethnic groups, the government and its operation, the economy under the Five Year Plans, and Soviet foreign relations. Perhaps the last chapter is somewhat too brief to satisfy many readers, but this shortcoming is compensated by the

surprising wealth of material in the first four chapters. There are two maps, one a double page depicting the principle railroad lines, cities and industrial areas of European and Siberian Russia, and the other showing the iron ore and coal deposits of Russia west of the Urals. The five appendices are interesting, especially the one which summarizes the production goals of the Sixth Five Year Plan. The chapter on Soviet economy is well supplemented with graphs, charts and tables, although this feature is not overdone. The classified bibliography, containing only books in English, is fairly complete, but it does not include dates of publication for the books listed.

Modern Russia would furnish an excellent source of information for the secondary school teacher who wishes to inform himself on the subject.

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Creative Dramatics, an Art for Children. By Geraldine Brain Siks. New York: Harpers & Brothers, Publishers, 1958. pp. 372. \$6.00.

Geraldine Brain Siks was a speech and theatre major at Northwestern University where she was closely associated with Winifred Ward, the founder of creative dramatics for children. Mrs. Siks is assistant professor of drama at the University of Washington where Agnes Haaga is director of creative dramatics and Glenn Hughes is executive director of the school of drama.

Creative Dramatics is written for prospective teachers of elementary and junior high schools. The book contains an extremely clear explanation of creative dramatics, gives qualifications of a teacher who leads the activity, pictures participating children, and offers a nice listing of suitable material. The author describes actual classes to demonstrate how effectively teachers have started children out in groups creating dramatics, first by stimulating their

imagination, then, by establishing a climate for creativity and discipline, and finally by guiding children to create their own drama from good stories and poems suitable for their age.

There are two kinds of children's drama, children's theatre and informal drama which is called creative dramatics. Mrs. Siks says:

Dramatic play is a term which refers to creative playing centering around an idea, a situation, or a person, place, or thing. It generally utilizes the dramatic elements of characterization, action, and dialogue. It seldom has plot. It unfolds spontaneously. It is fragmentary and fun.

When children seek expression through play, they pretend; "they try on life." Children who play at being birds experience a deeper enjoyment of the beauty of birds.

When a child learns how to use his imagination, he becomes resourceful. He gradually develops a perceptive attitude toward solving problems, meeting emergencies and unexpected happenings. He gains a security of attitude as he remains calm and figures out what to do.

The success of the creative dramatic activity depends on its leader.

It is a leader's spirit that gives current, force, and a feeling of sailing forward to a creative dramatics experience. Spirit is enthusiasm. Enthusiasm is passion. Passion is power. . . . When spirit is missing an experience fails to become creative. It seems to drift, flounder in circles, and become stranded at low ebb. A leader's spirit may be characterized by physical vitality, but even more by emotional vitality, radiance, aliveness, intensity, and faith.

Because it reaches a child's inner self, a personal approach is necessary for his "head will not hear until the heart first listens, and what the heart understands today the head will understand tomorrow."

Most children need someone who can make them do what they are capable of doing. A leader leads in a friendly, firm way. She has good discipline. She uses the rhythm of music to introduce children to creative dramatics. She is a master at planning and asking seaching questions that leads to thinking and expression, as, "When have you heard music that makes you happy?"

A leader's work is carefully planned. She helps a child picture a character in his mind before he tries to create it. He needs to identify himself with the character's feelings. He needs to know why he does what he does. If he doesn't feel when he creates he becomes a statue or a puppet. He has to express a character's feelings from the inside out to his body.

Not every story a child reads should be played, but after he plays several stories he begins to read with stronger involvement and belief for he carries himself into his reading.

Mrs. Siks discusses the three age groups that would enjoy creative dramatics most. She shows how little children are like and different from seven and eight year olds, who in turn are like and different from the eager, active nine, ten and eleven years olds. In the last group, she says the tens are active in a smooth exuberant way and have a stabilizing effect on both the nines and the restless enthusiastic elevens.

Creative Dramatics as a text is on the inspirational side, yet its directions for assignments and procedures are practical. Appendix B has lists of poems, songs, stories, and ideas that have been found to be effective in directing these three age levels. In a brief paragraph following each suggestions. Mrs. Siks explains how it can be used. This Appendix itself might make the book worth the purchase price for the elementary and junior high teacher.

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